

Comparative phenotypic analysis of the two major splice isoforms of phosphatidylinositol phosphate kinase type I γ *in vivo*

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Summary

Localized production of polyphosphoinositides is critical for their signaling function. To examine the biological relevance of specific pools of phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate we compared the consequences of genetically ablating all isoforms of phosphatidylinositol phosphate (PIP) kinase type I γ (PIPKI γ), encoded by the gene *Pip5k1c*, versus ablation of a specific splice isoform, PIPKI γ _i2, with respect to three reported PIPKI γ functions. Ablation of PIPKI γ _i2 caused a neuron-specific endocytosis defect similar to that found in PIPKI γ ^{-/-} mice, while agonist-induced calcium signaling was reduced in PIPKI γ ^{-/-} cells, but was not affected in the absence of PIPKI γ _i2. A reported contribution of PIPKI γ to epithelial integrity was not evident in PIPKI γ ^{-/-} mice. Given that mice lacking PIPKI γ _i2 live a normal lifespan whereas PIPKI γ ^{-/-} mice die shortly after birth, we propose that PIPKI γ -mediated metabotropic calcium signaling may represent an essential function of PIPKI γ , whereas functions specific to the PIPKI γ _i2 splice isoform are not essential for survival.

Key words: PIP kinase, Clathrin-mediated endocytosis, Calcium signalling, Knockout mouse

Introduction

Phospholipid-mediated signaling through phosphatidylinositol (4,5)-bisphosphate [PtdIns(4,5)P₂] regulates a wide variety of cellular functions ranging from gene transcription to actin cytoskeleton remodelling, endocytosis and agonist-induced calcium signaling. To achieve specificity in signaling, the spatiotemporal production of PtdIns(4,5)P₂ must be tightly regulated. PtdIns(4,5)P₂ can be generated by de-phosphorylation of PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ by 3-phosphatases such as PTEN (phosphatase and tensin homolog deleted on chromosome 10), but more commonly it is synthesized by kinases that phosphorylate PtdIns(4)P on the D5 position of the inositol ring [type I phosphatidylinositol phosphate (PIP) kinases] or PtdIns(5)P on the D4 position (type II PIP kinases). Since PtdIns(4)P is the more abundant phosphoinositide, it is believed that the bulk of PtdIns(4,5)P₂ is synthesized by type I PIP kinases.

Type I PIP kinases comprise a family encoded by three genes, giving rise to PIP kinase type I α (PIPKI α), PIPKI β and PIPKI γ (Ishihara et al., 1996; Loijens and Anderson, 1996; Ishihara et al., 1998). The nomenclature for human and mouse PIPKI α and PIPKI β is switched (i.e. human PIPKI α is mouse PIPKI β , and vice versa); in this work the mouse nomenclature will be used exclusively. PIPKIs have distinct subcellular localization which likely contributes to their specificity of function (Doughman et al., 2003; Giudici et al., 2006). Furthermore, PIPKI γ is expressed as a variety of different splice variants with distinct subcellular localization patterns (Ishihara et al., 1998; Giudici et al., 2004; Schill and Anderson, 2009; Xia et al., 2011). The two

major splice isoforms of PIPKI γ , encoded by the *Pip5k1c* gene in mouse, PIPKI γ _i1 (also known as PIPKI γ 635 or PIPKI γ 87) and PIPKI γ _i2 (also known as PIPKI γ 661 or PIPKI γ 90) localize to cell-cell junctions of epithelial cells (Akiyama et al., 2005) or focal adhesions (Di Paolo et al., 2002; Ling et al., 2002), respectively. They differ by the addition of 26 amino acids to the C-terminus of PIPKI γ _i2, that provides a binding site for the clathrin AP-2 adaptor complex β 2 and μ subunits, and the integrin adaptor talin (de Pereda et al., 2005; Kahlfeldt et al., 2010).

Overexpression and siRNA knockdown studies have revealed distinct cellular functions for PIPKI γ splice isoforms. Through these approaches it was shown that PIPKI γ _i1 has a specific role in G protein coupled receptor-mediated Ca²⁺ signaling (Wang et al., 2004) and ADP-ribosylation factor 6 (ARF6)-mediated Ca²⁺-dependent exocytosis (Aikawa and Martin, 2003), whereas PIPKI γ _i2 overexpression or dominant negative expression perturbs focal adhesion formation (Di Paolo et al., 2002; Ling et al., 2002), integrin activation (Calderwood et al., 2004) and adhesion (Powner et al., 2005; Toyofuku et al., 2005). Overexpression studies have also shown that this isoform stimulates clathrin-mediated endocytosis (Baird et al., 2006; Krauss et al., 2006; Nakano-Kobayashi et al., 2007) and rear retraction of neutrophils during migration (Lokuta et al., 2007) whereas specific knockdown of PIPKI γ _i2 points to a role for this isoform in E-cadherin trafficking (Ling et al., 2007), chemotactic migration of HeLa cells towards an EGF gradient (Sun et al., 2007) and polarized integrin trafficking through

regulation of the exocyst complex (Thapa et al., 2012). Additional roles in migration, invasion and growth of breast cancer cells (Sun et al., 2010), survival of pancreatic beta cells (Tomas et al., 2010), growth factor-dependent β -catenin transcriptional activity (Schramm et al., 2011) and actin organization at sites of N-cadherin-mediated adhesion (El Sayegh et al., 2007) have been proposed, but splice isoform specificity has not been established.

While *in vitro* approaches have provided valuable insights into the cellular functions of PIP2Ks, knockout mouse models and cells derived from these models have addressed biological relevance and cellular function without the potential contribution of siRNA-mediated off target effects or overexpression artifacts. The different phenotypes resulting from genetic disruption of individual PIP2K genes highlights the distinct isoform-specific roles they play in physiology. PIP2K α -deficient mice exhibit increased degranulation of mast cells and an increase in cytokine production leading to anaphylaxis, owing to defects in the cortical actin cytoskeleton (Sasaki et al., 2005). Impaired thrombin-induced IP₃ production in platelets lacking PIP2K β leads to thrombosis defects in PIP2K β ^{-/-} mice (Wang et al., 2008a), and bone marrow-derived macrophages lacking PIP2K β are defective in phagocytosis due to reduced actin polymerization in the phagocytic cup (Mao et al., 2009). Whereas both PIP2K α - and PIP2K β -deficient mice are viable and live into adulthood, PIP2K γ -deficient mice either die at birth with defects in synaptic vesicle trafficking (Di Paolo et al., 2004) or die *in utero* from cardiovascular and neuronal defects (Wang et al., 2007). Simultaneous deletion of PIP2K β and PIP2K γ worsens the phenotype, with the mice dying in minutes rather than hours, whereas deletion of both PIP2K α and PIP2K γ is lethal during embryogenesis (Volpicelli-Daley et al., 2010). Interestingly, a single allele of PIP2K γ is sufficient for life (Volpicelli-Daley et al., 2010). Cells derived from the perinatal lethal PIP2K γ mice have additionally been used to establish roles for PIP2K γ in vesicle priming in chromaffin cells (Gong et al., 2005), Fc γ R-mediated phagocytosis (Mao et al., 2009), Ca²⁺ signaling in mast cells (Vasudevan et al., 2009) and adhesion and infiltration of neutrophils (Xu et al., 2010), whereas megakaryocytes derived from the embryonic lethal PIP2K γ mouse have implicated PIP2K γ in mediating attachment of the actin cytoskeleton to the plasma membrane in this cell type (Wang et al., 2008b).

The reason for the striking differences in phenotype of both PIP2K γ knockout mice is not clear. Although western blotting revealed the absence of PIP2K γ protein in lysates derived from both mice, the deletion strategies differ in their details. The perinatal lethal mouse was made by replacing exons 2–6 of PIP2K γ , encoding much of the kinase domain, with a Neo cassette (Di Paolo et al., 2004), whereas the embryonic lethal mouse was made using a β -galactosidase gene trap construct that follows the first exon of PIP2K γ (Wang et al., 2007). Both approaches theoretically result in translation of the first exon (32 amino acids) of PIP2K γ .

We have recently reported that fibroblasts lacking PIP2K γ _{i2} have a defect in integrin-mediated adhesion and force coupling (Legate et al., 2011). Here we report a comparison of the phenotypes of mice lacking either all PIP2K γ isoforms (PIP2K γ ^{-/-} mouse) or only PIP2K γ _{i2} (PIP2K γ Δ E17 mouse). The PIP2K γ Δ E17 mouse is viable and fertile. T cells from PIP2K γ Δ E17 mice show increased LFA-1-mediated adhesion and activation, establishing PIP2K γ _{i2} as a negative regulator of T

cell activation (Wernimont et al., 2010). Our PIP2K γ ^{-/-} mouse was made by targeting the PIP2K γ 3' UTR for Cre-mediated removal. These mice die shortly after birth with an identical gross phenotype as the mouse model targeting the PIP2K γ kinase domain. However, whereas both PIP2K γ Δ E17 mice and PIP2K γ ^{-/-} mice have a comparable synaptic vesicle endocytosis defect, only cells from the PIP2K γ ^{-/-} mouse show defects in metabotropic Ca²⁺ signaling. Therefore, we propose that an essential defect in PIP2K γ ^{-/-} mice arises from insufficient intracellular Ca²⁺ signaling in a variety of tissues.

Results

Generation and characterization of PIP2K γ ^{-/-} and PIP2K γ Δ E17 mice

To obtain a conditional deletion of all isoforms of PIP2K γ in mice, we generated embryonic stem (ES) cells in which exon 18 of PIP2K γ , encoding the 3' UTR, was flanked with LoxP sites (supplementary material Fig. S1A). Since deletion of this region eliminates all polyadenylation consensus sequences, the PIP2K γ mRNA becomes rapidly degraded leading to a loss of protein. In parallel, we generated ES cells in which we flanked exon 17, encoding the talin and AP-2 binding site, with LoxP sites to specifically abolish translation of the PIP2K γ _{i2} isoform (Legate et al., 2011). Mutant ES cells were used to generate mouse strains in which the floxed sequences were removed by mating with a transgenic line expressing Cre recombinase. F1 generation pups were screened by Southern blot to confirm germline transmission (supplementary material Fig. S1B). Following Cre-mediated excision of the floxed exons, offspring were genotyped by PCR (supplementary material Fig. S1C). Heterozygous offspring were backcrossed an additional six times into the C57BL/6 background prior to analysis.

To confirm that excision of exon 18 resulted in no detectable PIP2K γ mRNA, RNA was isolated from brain tissue of newborn pups and RT-PCR was performed using primers that anneal to exon 16 and 17, or primers flanking exon 17 to distinguish between PIP2K γ _{i1} and PIP2K γ _{i2} isoforms. In PIP2K γ ^{-/-} mice, no PIP2K γ message was observed, whereas in PIP2K γ Δ E17 mice the entire message encoding PIP2K γ _{i2} had the size of the PIP2K γ _{i1} isoform (Fig. 1A). PIP2K γ _{i2} was the predominant PIP2K γ isoform in brain, as previously reported (Wenk et al., 2001). The amount of PIP2K α and PIP2K β transcript was not noticeably changed in the absence of PIP2K γ transcript. Immunoblotting of brain lysates confirmed the complete absence of PIP2K γ protein in PIP2K γ ^{-/-} mice, and the absence of PIP2K γ _{i2} in PIP2K γ Δ E17 mice, with all PIP2K γ now migrating as PIP2K γ _{i1}. The expression levels of talin and clathrin heavy chain were unchanged (Fig. 1B). Likewise, Δ E17 fibroblasts retain expression of PIP2K γ _{i1} and express talin at a normal level (Legate et al., 2011).

RT-PCR on tissue samples from wild-type (WT) mice show that expression of both splice isoforms is widespread (supplementary material Fig. S2). Despite the absence of PIP2K γ _{i2}, PIP2K γ Δ E17 mice develop normally, are born at normal Mendelian ratios and are indistinguishable from WT littermates in appearance and behavior (Fig. 1C, and data not shown). PIP2K γ ^{-/-} mice are born but die a few hours after birth with an apparent inability to feed (note the absence of milk in the stomach; Fig. 1D). There are no histological abnormalities observed in either mouse (data not shown). By comparing these two mice, we conclude that at least one PIP2K γ -specific function

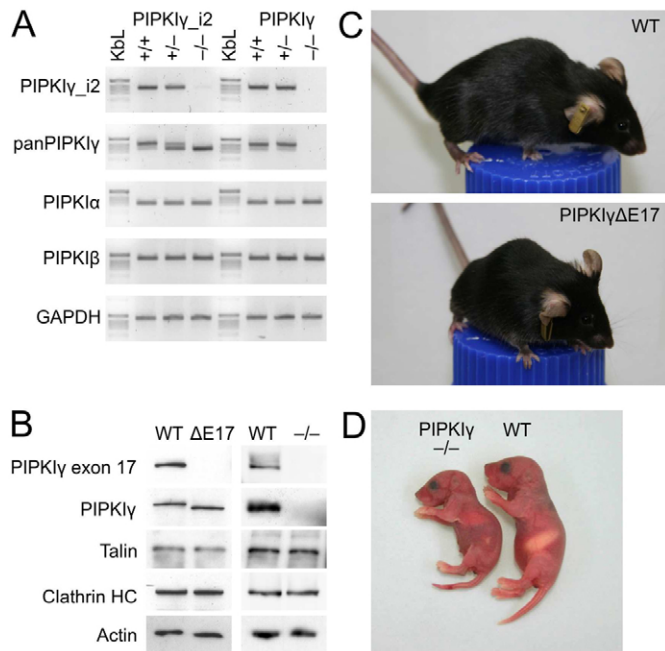


Fig. 1. Generation of PIPKI γ ^{-/-} and PIPKI γ ΔE17 mice. (A) RT-PCR from brain cDNA showing the absence of PIPKI γ message in PIPKI γ ^{-/-} mice and the specific deletion of PIPKI γ _{i2} in PIPKI γ ΔE17 mice. Expression of PIPKI α and PIPKI β mRNA is not changed. K_bL=Kilobase ladder. (B) Western blot of brain lysate shows complete loss of all PIPKI γ isoforms in PIPKI γ ^{-/-} mice, using an antibody directed against the kinase domain, and the loss of the PIPKI γ _{i2} isoform in PIPKI γ ΔE17 lysates, using an antibody directed against the C-terminus of PIPKI γ _{i2}. (C) Appearance of 4-week-old WT and PIPKI γ ΔE17 littermates. (D) Appearance of newborn WT and PIPKI γ ^{-/-} littermates, at approximately 6 hours *postpartum*. Note the lack of milk in the stomach of the PIPKI γ ^{-/-} littermate.

is essential for life, but that PIPKI γ _{i2}-specific functions are dispensable.

Endocytosis defects in PIPKI γ ^{-/-} and PIPKI γ ΔE17 mice are neuron-specific

The gross phenotype of our PIPKI γ ^{-/-} mice resembles that reported by de Camilli and colleagues (Di Paolo et al., 2004). Analysis of these mice revealed a reduction in PtdIns(4,5)_P₂ levels in brain accompanied by synaptic vesicle (SV) recycling defects. As PIPKI γ interfaces with the clathrin-endocytosis machinery via interactions between the AP-2 adaptor complex and either the C-terminal extension present in PIPKI γ _{i2} (Bairstow et al., 2006; Nakano-Kobayashi et al., 2007; Thieman et al., 2009; Kahlfeldt et al., 2010) or the kinase domain (Krauss et al., 2006) we sought to confirm the findings in our PIPKI γ ^{-/-} mouse and extend them to the PIPKI γ ΔE17 mouse.

To examine SV recycling *in vitro*, neurons were isolated from E14 embryos and SV endocytosis was monitored using a capture ELISA method using synaptotagmin as the specific readout. We did not make note of any obvious migratory defects in neurons during the preparation of this assay, nor were there noticeable neuronal migratory defects *in vivo* (supplementary material Fig. S3 and data not shown). To examine SV endocytosis, surface-biotinylated neurons were first depolarized with 90 mM KCl, and allowed to repolarize in the presence of 4 mM KCl. Neurons from PIPKI γ ^{-/-} mice showed around a 50% reduction in

synaptotagmin uptake compared to WT neurons, consistent with the reported SV endocytosis defect (Fig. 2A). However, neurons from PIPKI γ ΔE17 mice also showed a similarly reduced synaptotagmin uptake as PIPKI γ ^{-/-} neurons, indicating that the role of PIPKI γ in SV endocytosis is imparted by the C-terminus of PIPKI γ _{i2}. We confirmed these findings by using a well-characterized FM4-64 fluorescent dye retention assay (supplementary material Fig. S4A). Again, both PIPKI γ ΔE17 and PIPKI γ ^{-/-} neurons showed reduced endocytosis compared to WT neurons (supplementary material Fig. S4B).

Isolation of synaptosomes from WT and PIPKI γ ΔE17 mice reveals abundant PIPKI γ _{i1} in PIPKI γ ΔE17 synaptosomes (Fig. 2B,C). However, the presence of the PIPKI γ _{i1} isoform in the synapse is not able to compensate for the loss of the PIPKI γ _{i2} isoform. PIPKI γ ΔE17 mice performed comparably to WT mice in most standardized behavioral or motor tests (grip strength, rotarod, open field, elevated plus maze, light-dark avoidance, Morris water maze, shuttle box; Fig. 3), the magnitude of the response to an auditory startle stimulus was significantly reduced in PIPKI γ ΔE17 mice (Fig. 3E,F). The magnitude of response was also decreased at several prepulse intensities, but prepulse inhibition was not affected (Fig. 3F; supplementary material Fig. S5).

To examine whether PIPKI γ has a general role in clathrin-mediated endocytosis in other cell types, we generated kidney fibroblasts from PIPKI γ E17 fl/fl and PIPKI γ fl/fl mice and transiently expressed Cre to generate PIPKI γ ΔE17 and PIPKI γ ^{-/-} fibroblasts, respectively (Legate et al., 2011). Transferrin receptor (TfR) endocytosis was then measured in each cell line by monitoring the uptake of Alexa488-transferrin by FACS. Both PIPKI γ ΔE17 cells (Fig. 2D) and PIPKI γ ^{-/-} cells (Fig. 2E) showed the same fluorescence uptake as their WT counterparts, indicating that PIPKI γ plays no obvious role in regulating clathrin-mediated endocytosis in fibroblasts.

To corroborate these findings we investigated spleen-resident metalophilic macrophages (Met-M ϕ) that exhibit significant TfR endocytosis *in vivo*. Met-M ϕ from WT or PIPKI γ ΔE17 animals were enriched by magnetic negative selection (Fig. 2F) and then tested for Alexa488-transferrin endocytosis by FACS. Like in fibroblasts, no difference in TfR endocytosis was detected in Met-M ϕ from either mouse (Fig. 2G). Likewise, Prussian blue staining of iron stores in spleen sections revealed no differences (Fig. 2H). Finally, challenging mice with a low iron diet caused a significant reduction in iron stores in both spleen and liver, which did not differ between WT and PIPKI γ ΔE17 littermates (Fig. 2I).

Taken together, a role for PIPKI γ in endocytosis can be readily observed in neurons, but not in other tested cell types. Furthermore, SV endocytosis requires the PIPKI γ _{i2} isoform for maximal uptake, but no adverse consequences for survival were apparent by its absence. Therefore, the lethality of PIPKI γ ^{-/-} mice arises from impairment of other functions specific to PIPKI γ _{i1}.

PIPKI γ is not required for epithelial integrity

Knockdown experiments indicate that PIPKI γ is important for basolateral targeting of E-cadherin to adherens junctions (AJs) in MDCK cells (Ling et al., 2007). As defects in epithelial integrity could cause perinatal lethality in PIPKI γ ^{-/-} mice, we examined E-cadherin localization in several epithelia. The level and distribution of E-cadherin in AJs in the skin (Fig. 4A), esophagus (Fig. 4B), small intestine (supplementary material

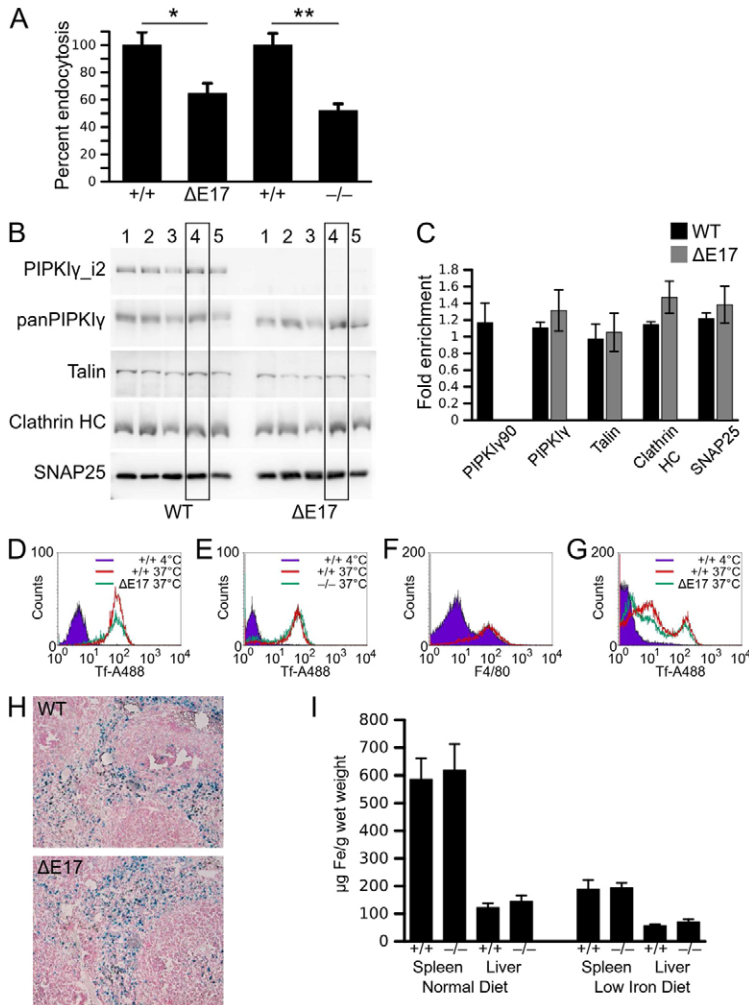


Fig. 2. Analysis of clathrin-mediated endocytosis. (A) Neurons from E14 embryos were surface biotinylated, depolarized, and allowed to repolarize for 10 minutes before the amount of internalized synaptotagmin was determined by a capture ELISA assay. WT $n=3$, $\Delta E17$ and $^{-/-}$ $n=4$. * $P<0.05$; ** $P<0.005$. (B) Brains were isolated from 8-week-old WT and $\Delta E17$ littermates and synaptosomes were isolated on a discontinuous Ficoll gradient. A representative preparation is shown. Lane 1=whole cell lysate; Lane 2=P2 fraction; Lane 3=light membranes; Lane 4=synaptosomes; Lane 5=heavy membranes, mostly mitochondria. The lane containing synaptosomes is bounded by a box. (C) Fold-enrichment of the indicated molecules in synaptosomes over whole cell lysate was calculated for six replicates. Data are mean \pm s.e.m. (D) FACS analysis of transferrin (Tf)-Alexa488 endocytosis by WT (red line) and $\Delta E17$ (green line) fibroblasts. A representative example of three independent experiments is shown. (E) FACS analysis of Tf-Alexa488 endocytosis by WT (red line) and PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ (green line) fibroblasts. A representative example of three independent experiments is shown. (F) Enrichment of metallophilic macrophages from a WT spleen is shown. Single cell suspensions were labeled with antibody against the macrophage marker F4/80 and analyzed by FACS before (purple area) and after (red line) magnetic negative selection. (G) Enriched metallophilic macrophages were incubated with Tf-Alexa488 and endocytosis was monitored by FACS. (H) 8 μ m thick paraffin-embedded spleen sections were stained with Prussian blue to visualize iron deposits. (I) Six animals of each genotype were fed a normal diet or a diet deficient in iron for 6 weeks. Samples of spleen and liver were analyzed for iron storage content. Data are mean \pm s.e.m.

Fig. S6) and kidney epithelia (Fig. 4C,D) was similar between newborn WT and PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ mice. Inside-out barrier function of newborn skin was intact, as subcutaneous injection of biotin did not penetrate to the outer layers of epithelia (Fig. 4E). Development of the outside-in barrier was monitored by soaking embryos in a solution of X-gal and monitoring color development due to the presence of endogenous β -galactosidase activity in the dermis. The epidermis was freely permeable in E16.5 embryos, and permeability was restricted to the limbs and face of E17.5 embryos, as previously reported (Hardman et al., 1998) (Fig. 4F). By E18.5, no penetration of X-gal through the epidermis was observed, indicating the complete formation of the outside-in barrier (not shown). To examine whether PIPKI γ localizes to AJs in keratinocytes, and therefore may play a role in AJ formation and maintenance in this cell type, keratinocytes expressing GFP-PIPKI γ_i1 or GFP-PIPKI γ_i2 were differentiated with Ca $^{2+}$ and imaged (Fig. 4G). In contrast to A431 epithelial cells (Akiyama et al., 2005) and MDCK cells (Ling et al., 2007), neither isoform colocalized with E-cadherin in AJs of keratinocytes (Fig. 4G,H). PIPKI γ_i1 localization was largely cytosolic, whereas PIPKI γ_i2 localized to structures resembling focal adhesions at the edge of the cell sheet where cells did not contact neighbors.

Consistent with our finding that PIPKI γ is dispensable for normal epithelial function, conditional knockout mice in which PIPKI γ was deleted from epithelium using Cre recombinase driven by the keratin5

promoter (PIPKI γ fl/fl $^{K5-Cre}$) were healthy and fertile. Female PIPKI γ fl/fl $^{K5-cre}$ mice were able to support multiple sequential litters, demonstrating that remodeling of mammary epithelium proceeded normally in the absence of PIPKI γ (not shown).

Agonist-induced Ca $^{2+}$ signaling is reduced in PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ and enhanced in PIPKI $\gamma\Delta E17$ mice

A role for PIPKI γ in agonist-induced Ca $^{2+}$ signaling is supported by knockdown and knockout studies in several cell types (Wang et al., 2004; Vasudevan et al., 2009; Yu et al., 2011). To examine whether there are PIPKI γ isoform-specific differences in Ca $^{2+}$ signaling in our mice, we used the ratiometric Fura-2 Ca $^{2+}$ indicator dye to monitor ATP-induced intracellular Ca $^{2+}$ release in WT and PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ fibroblasts. ATP stimulation triggered a rise in intracellular Ca $^{2+}$ in both cell lines, but the peak response was reduced by 25% in PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ cells ($P=0.001$) (Fig. 5A,B). Ca $^{2+}$ flux, calculated by measuring the slope of the increase of the Fura-2 fluorescence ratio, was reduced to 70% of wild type values in PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ cells but this was not statistically significant (Fig. 5B). The lag time between addition of ATP and induction of a response was not different between cell lines (supplementary material Fig. S7A), and all cell lines returned to basal levels of intracellular Ca $^{2+}$ within 5 minutes of stimulation (supplementary material Fig. S7B). Intracellular Ca $^{2+}$ stores were identical between the cell lines as treatment with the SERCA pump inhibitor thapsigargin caused

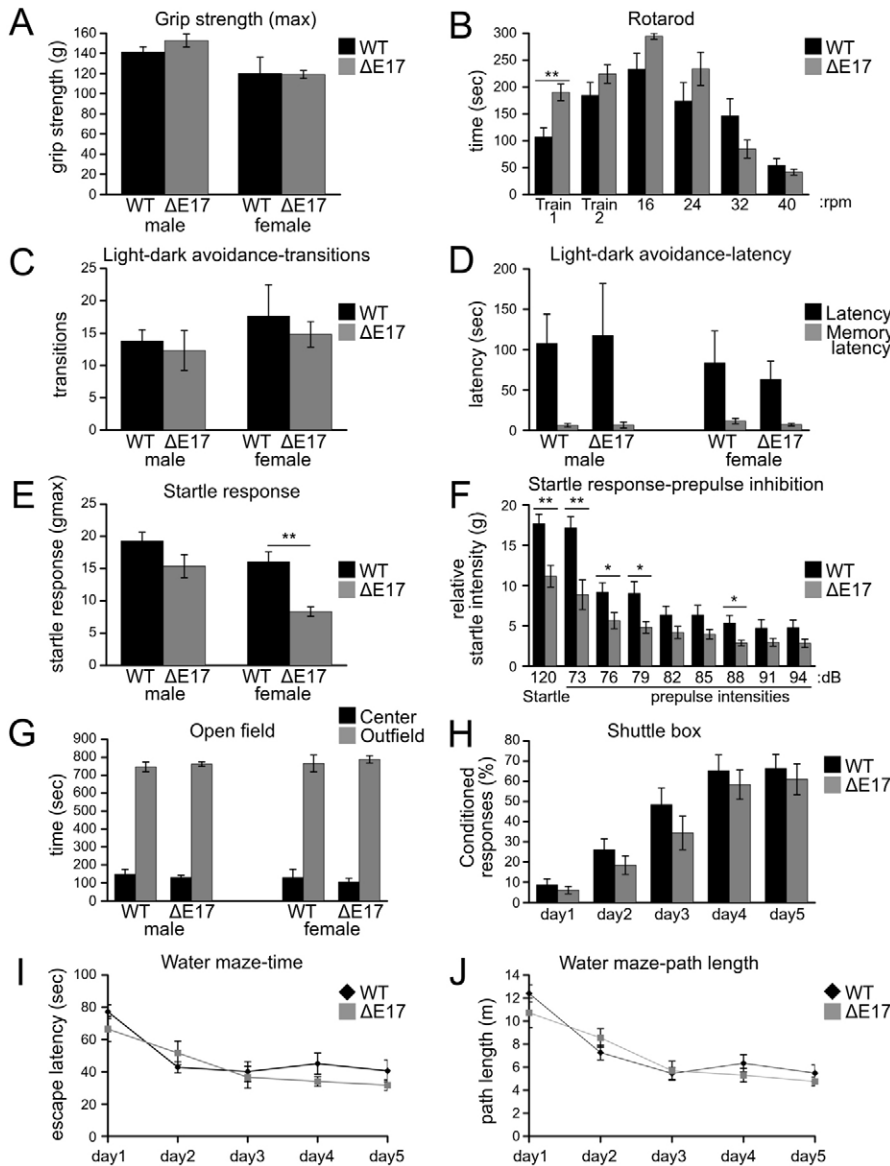


Fig. 3. Behavioral analysis of WT and PIPKI γ Δ E17 mice. (A) Muscle strength was compared by measuring maximum forelimb grip strength. (B) Motor coordination was compared by measuring the ability of mice to remain atop a cylinder rotating at the specified revolutions per minute (rpm); training 1 and 2 were executed increasing the rotation continuously from 4 to 40 rpm over 5 min. (C) The number of transitions between a light and a dark chamber was used as a measure of anxiety. When tested 18 days later all mice showed a reduced latency time to enter the dark chamber (D), indicating an intact long-term memory. (E) Startle response resulting from a 120 dB sound. The magnitude of the startle response was significantly lower in Δ E17 mice ($F_{(1,18)}=16.513$, $P=0.0007$). Attenuation of the startle response by a prepulse (F) tested sensory gating and information processing. Significant differences in the magnitude of the startle response were observed at prepulse intensities of 73, 76, 79 and 88 dB. The relative inhibition by the prepulse (expressed as % of startle) is not altered (see supplementary material Fig. S4). (G) Exploratory behavior in the open field test (center 15×15 cm, outfield area within 5 cm from wall). (H) Associative conditioned learning was tested with the shuttle box. (I, J) The Morris water maze was used to test visual spatial learning. The location of the submerged platform was changed on day 4. Sample sizes for all experiments were 6 WT males, 6 WT females, 4 Δ E17 males and 6 Δ E17 females. * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.005$.

an identical rise in cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} (Fig. 5C). Consistent with the notion that PIPKI γ exerts this effect via phospholipase C (PLC)-mediated hydrolysis of $PtdIns(4,5)P_2$ to IP_3 and DAG, inhibition of PLC-mediated processes with U-73122 completely abolished the cellular response to ATP (Fig. 5D). Repeating this experiment using PIPKI γ Δ E17 cells revealed a significantly greater peak response to ATP compared to wild type cells ($P < 0.05$) (Fig. 5E,F) with no change in the Ca^{2+} flux. This may be due to the focal adhesion-specific PIPKI γ Δ i2 isoform contributing to an increased PIPKI γ Δ i1 level in the absence of exon 17. The lag time between ATP addition and cellular response was not different between WT and PIPKI γ Δ E17 cells (supplementary material Fig. S7A). The addition of extracellular Ca^{2+} results in a transient increase in the Fura-2 ratio due to store operated Ca^{2+} influx (supplementary material Fig. S7C). The lag time between the addition of extracellular Ca^{2+} was comparable between all cell lines (supplementary material Fig. S7D) but the magnitude of the change in Fura-2 ratio was increased in the absence of either PIPKI γ isoform (Fig. 5G), indicating a greater influx of extracellular Ca^{2+} .

To determine whether the effect of PIPKI γ on Ca^{2+} signaling can be applied to other cell types, astrocytes and bladder-derived smooth muscle cells (SMCs) from WT and PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ mice were loaded with Fura-2 and exposed to ATP. Like in fibroblasts, PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ astrocytes showed significantly reduced intracellular Ca^{2+} release than their WT counterparts ($P < 0.01$) (supplementary material Fig. S7E). Furthermore, PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ astrocytes occasionally exhibited an uncoordinated response to ATP exposure, with some cells reacting after a short delay (supplementary material Movie 1), while WT astrocytes responded uniformly to ATP treatment (supplementary material Movie 2). Importantly, ATP-induced Ca^{2+} release did not differ between WT and PIPKI γ Δ E17 astrocytes (supplementary material Fig. S7E). Exposing SMCs to 100 μ M carbachol caused a robust release of intracellular Ca^{2+} stores in WT SMCs, that was significantly reduced ($P < 0.0001$) in PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ SMCs (supplementary material Fig. S7F). Therefore, the absence of PIPKI γ leads to impaired metabotropic Ca^{2+} signaling in several diverse cell types.

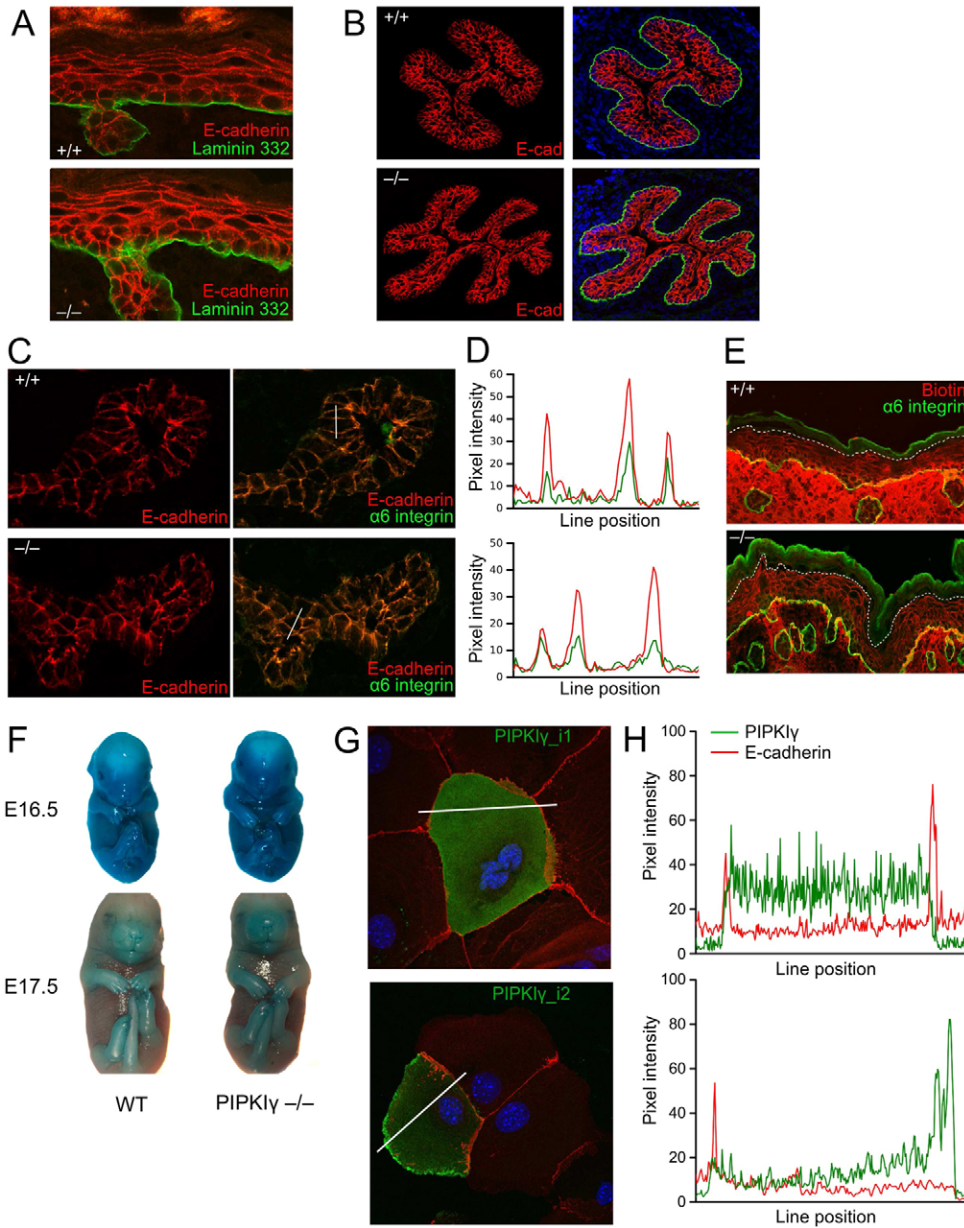


Fig. 4. Analysis of epithelial structure and integrity. (A) Sections of newborn back epithelium were immunostained for E-cadherin (red) and Laminin 332 (green) and imaged with confocal microscopy. (B) Transverse sections of newborn esophagus were immunostained for E-cadherin (red) and Laminin 332 (green) and imaged with confocal microscopy. (C) Sections of newborn kidney were immunostained for E-cadherin (red) and integrin $\alpha 6$ (green). Lines in the merged images denote areas chosen for linescan analysis. (D) Linescans from images in C showing coincidence of E-cadherin (red line) and integrin $\alpha 6$ (green line) staining. (E) Inside-out barrier function of newborn back skin demonstrated by subcutaneous injection of biotin and detection with streptavidin-Cy3. Note the lack of penetration of biotin into the outer layers of the epidermis (dotted line). (F) Outside-in barrier function of the epidermis of E16.5 and E17.5 embryos. Blue color arises from conversion of X-gal by dermal β -galactosidase activity. (G) Localization of PIPKI γ isoforms in primary keratinocytes. PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ keratinocytes were transfected with GFP-PIPKI γ_{i1} (top) or PIPKI γ_{i2} (bottom), differentiated with Ca^{2+} and immunostained for E-cadherin (red). Lines indicate regions selected for line scan analysis. (H) Line scan analysis from regions in G.

Discussion

PtdIns(4,5) P_2 is a lipid messenger with a variety of distinct functions. It can bind directly to many proteins and thereby dictate their subcellular localization and/or functional activity. It is metabolized by phospholipase C to generate the second messengers diacylglycerol (DAG) and IP_3 , which activate protein kinase C and mobilize intracellular Ca^{2+} stores, respectively. It also serves as the substrate for PI 3-kinases and thus represents the precursor to PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , which is an important second messenger in signal transduction. The major producers of PtdIns(4,5) P_2 are the PIPKIs, which must synthesize discrete pools of PtdIns(4,5) P_2 in a spatiotemporally-regulated manner to allow specific functions of PtdIns(4,5) P_2 to be executed.

To elucidate the *in vivo* role of specific PtdIns(4,5) P_2 pools we report the analysis of two mice: one harbouring a deletion of all splice isoforms of PIPKI γ (PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$), and one carrying a

specific deletion of the PIPKI γ_{i2} splice isoform (PIPKI $\gamma\Delta E17$). We report that the PIPKI $\gamma\Delta E17$ mouse has no significant aberrant phenotype, although fibroblasts and T cells lacking PIPKI γ_{i2} display adhesion-related defects (Legate et al., 2011; Wernimont et al., 2010). It should be noted that the magnitude of the defects measured *in vitro* is small and does not appear to be important for normal development or physiological functioning, but the contribution of the PIPKI γ_{i2} -specific pool in challenge scenarios *in vivo* is so far untested. The PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ mice experience perinatal death, in agreement with one of the two published models (Di Paolo et al., 2004). To establish a likely cause for the mortality in PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ mice, we focused our analysis on three proposed functions for PIPKI γ : clathrin-mediated endocytosis, basolateral trafficking of E-cadherin in epithelia, and agonist-induced intracellular Ca^{2+} release. In so doing we establish that PIPKI γ_{i2} is specifically required for

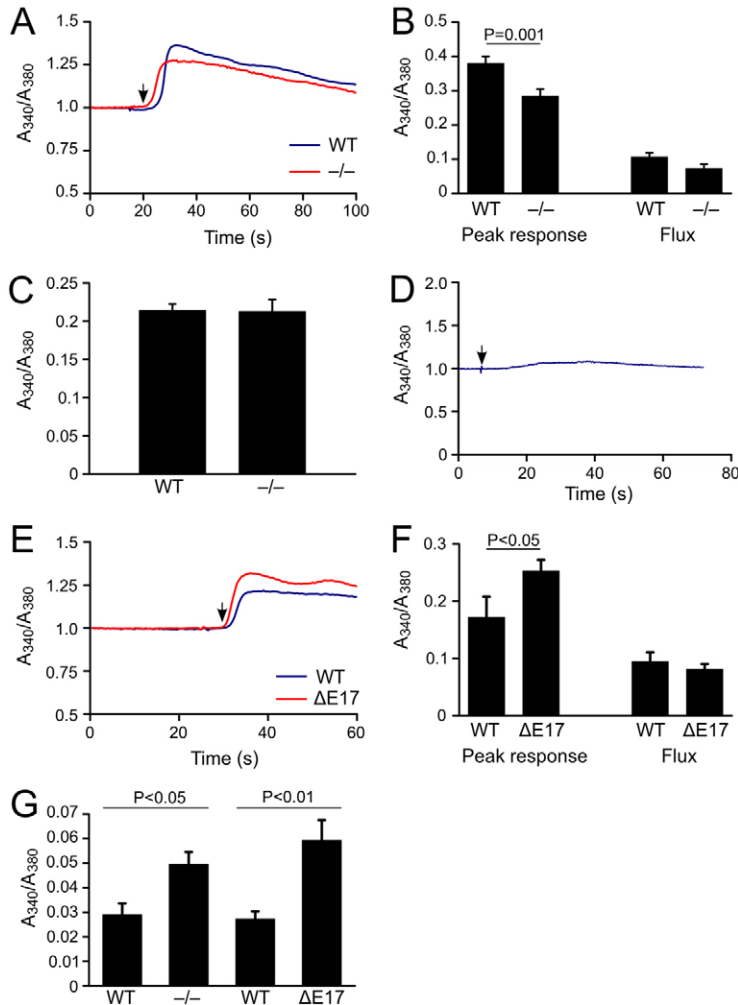


Fig. 5. Analysis of Ca²⁺ signaling. (A) Fura-2 ratiometric response of WT (blue line) and PIPKI γ ^{-/-} (red line) fibroblasts exposed to 100 μ M ATP. Arrow indicates addition of ATP. (B) Peak ratiometric response and Ca²⁺ flux for 33 WT and 36 PIPKI γ ^{-/-} cells. (C) Peak ratiometric response for 16 WT and 12 PIPKI γ ^{-/-} fibroblasts exposed to 100 μ M ATP in the presence of thapsigargin (5 μ M). (D) Representative ratiometric response of fibroblasts exposed to 100 μ M ATP in the presence of the PKC inhibitor U-73122 (20 μ M). Arrow indicates addition of ATP. (E) Fura-2 ratiometric response of WT (blue line) and PIPKI γ Δ E17 (red line) fibroblasts exposed to 100 μ M ATP. Arrow indicates addition of ATP. (F) Peak ratiometric response and Ca²⁺ flux for 21 WT and 23 PIPKI γ Δ E17 cells. (G) Peak ratiometric response of fibroblasts exposed to 1 mM extracellular Ca²⁺. *N*=45 WT, 37 Δ E17; 21 WT, 20 ^{-/-}. Data in B,C,F,G are mean \pm s.e.m.

endocytosis in neurons, PIPKI γ _{i1} has a role in Ca²⁺ signaling in several cell types, and neither isoform is required for epithelial integrity.

The involvement of PIPKI γ in clathrin-mediated endocytosis at the synaptic membrane has been demonstrated using knockdown and overexpression approaches (Krauss et al., 2003; Nakano-Kobayashi et al., 2007) and through genetic disruption of all PIPKI γ isoforms (Di Paolo et al., 2004). PIPKI γ _{i2} was shown to be the relevant splice isoform in neurons (Nakano-Kobayashi et al., 2007) and was also shown to be an important mediator of endocytosis in MDCK and HeLa cells (Bairstow et al., 2006). Mutational and structural analysis indicates that the 26 amino acid extension of PIPKI γ _{i2} binds to the μ 2 subunit of the AP-2 adaptor complex (Bairstow et al., 2006; Kahlfeldt et al., 2010), as well as to the β 2 subunit (Nakano-Kobayashi et al., 2007; Thieman et al., 2009; Kahlfeldt et al., 2010), thereby localizing PIPKI γ _{i2} to clathrin-coated pits. However, the kinase core domain of all PIPKIs also binds to μ 2, raising the possibility that other PIPKIs and splice isoforms of PIPKI γ may stimulate endocytosis in some cell types (Krauss et al., 2006). By specifically ablating PIPKI γ _{i2} throughout the whole mouse we provide direct proof that this isoform is the relevant splice isoform mediating endocytosis in neurons by using an established method to measure relative amounts of internalized synaptic vesicles (Gaffield and Betz, 2007). Both

PIPKI γ Δ E17 and PIPKI γ ^{-/-} neurons had a comparable SV endocytosis defect, despite abundant levels of PIPKI γ _{i1} in synaptosome fractions. However, PIPKI γ appears to play no role in endocytosis in both fibroblasts and splenic metallophilic macrophages. The main difference between these experiments is that SV endocytosis was induced by first depolarizing the neuron, whereas fibroblast and macrophage experiments measured constitutive endocytosis, which appears to require PIPKI α rather than PIPKI γ (Padrón et al., 2003). It is surprising that a ~50% reduction in synaptic vesicle endocytosis appears to have little effect on performance during a battery of behavioral and learning and memory tests aside from a reduction in the magnitude of the startle response in PIPKI γ Δ E17 mice. Although involuntary movement by PIPKI γ Δ E17 mice is reduced in this assay, the degree of inhibition by a prepulse stimulus is not changed indicating that hearing itself is not affected. Reduction of the acoustic startle response without affecting its prepulse inhibition has been observed previously, e.g. in parkin-deficient mice, which is thought to result from a reduction of norepinephrine (Von Coelln et al., 2004). Interference with noradrenergic neurotransmission by lesions or pharmacologically modulates the amplitude of the startle response. Reduction in synaptic vesicle recycling may very subtly affect, potentially circuit specific, the neurotransmitter balance or release, and thereby exert subtle effects on specific

behaviors. The reduction of brain PtdIns(4,5) P_2 content was previously proposed to be the cause of perinatal lethality in PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ mice (Di Paolo et al., 2004). We show here that, of the potential roles of PIPKI γ -derived PtdIns(4,5) P_2 in brain function, the role in synaptic vesicle endocytosis is dispensable for life.

The most striking feature of newborn PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ mice is an inability to feed. Since PIPKI γ contributes to the formation of cell-cell junctions through regulating trafficking of E- and N-cadherin (El Sayegh et al., 2007; Ling et al., 2007), we hypothesized that the failure to feed could be a consequence of disturbed epithelial integrity. Although biochemical data indicates that PIPKI γ_{i2} is the most likely isoform to mediate cadherin trafficking (Ling et al., 2007), the localization of PIPKI γ_{i1} to cell-cell junctions in A431 cells (Akiyama et al., 2005) and an interaction with the exocyst to mediate E-cadherin clustering (Xiong et al., 2012) suggests that this isoform may also play a role in the maintenance of cell-cell junctions. However, our analysis indicates that AJs form correctly in the mouse in the absence of PIPKI γ , and no obvious defects in either stratified or simple epithelium are observed. Also, the failure to identify PIPKI γ in cell-cell junctions of keratinocytes indicates that it is unlikely that PIPKI γ plays a role in the maintenance of the AJs of the skin, consistent with normal barrier formation in PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ embryos and the lack of functional defects in PIPKI γ fl/fl^{K5-Cre} mice. Our antibody did not work in tissue sections, so we were unable to test whether PIPKI γ localizes to AJs in kidney or gut epithelium, but the lack of histological abnormalities on the microscopic level suggest that AJs were fully able to form and be maintained in these tissues in the absence of PIPKI γ .

Increases in intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration occur in response to a variety of agonists via G protein-mediated phospholipase C (PLC) activation (Berridge, 2009). PLC cleaves PtdIns(4,5) P_2 into DAG and IP $_3$; the latter binds to receptors on the endoplasmic reticulum and stimulates the release of Ca^{2+} (Berridge, 2009). Knockdown or genetic ablation of PIPKI γ results in diminished intracellular [Ca^{2+}] changes in HeLa cells, mast cells and mesenchymal stem cells (Wang et al., 2004; Vasudevan et al., 2009; Yu et al., 2011), implicating PIPKI γ as the source of this pool of PtdIns(4,5) P_2 . Cationic amino acid transporter (CAT-2) knockout mice provide indirect *in vivo* evidence for PIPKI γ involvement in Ca^{2+} signaling in smooth muscle (Chen et al., 2007). Tracheal rings from CAT-2^{-/-} mice show reduced smooth muscle contraction in response to carbachol treatment, which correlates with a reduced expression level of PIPKI γ compared to WT. Exogenous introduction of the polycation spermine restored PIPKI γ levels through an undetermined mechanism, and restoration of PIPKI γ expression likewise restored tracheal ring contractility. Although Ca^{2+} levels were not measured in these samples, smooth muscle contraction is activated by Ca^{2+} signaling cascades that culminate in myosin light chain phosphorylation (Berridge, 2008; Takashima, 2009).

We found that fibroblasts, glial cells and smooth muscle cells from PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ mice showed reduced intracellular Ca^{2+} release in response to metabotropic agonists (ATP and carbachol), in contrast to cells from PIPKI $\gamma\Delta E17$ mice, which responded as WT. PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ fibroblasts showed an increase in extracellular Ca^{2+} entry, in agreement with data from mast cells demonstrating that PIPKI γ inhibits the interaction of STIM1 and Orai1, thus impairing store-operated Ca^{2+} entry (SOCE) (Calloway et al., 2011). It is therefore interesting that PIPKI $\gamma\Delta E17$ fibroblasts also

show increased Ca^{2+} entry, despite the continued presence of PIPKI γ_{i1} . These data suggest that, in fibroblasts, PtdIns(4,5) P_2 synthesized by PIPKI γ_{i1} does not inhibit SOCE, but rather the inhibitory PtdIns(4,5) P_2 may originate from PIPKI γ_{i2} . Therefore, both isoforms may play a role in Ca^{2+} signaling, with PIPKI γ_{i1} providing the PtdIns(4,5) P_2 for IP $_3$ -mediated release of internal Ca^{2+} stores, and PIPKI γ_{i2} providing the PtdIns(4,5) P_2 to limit the extent of SOCE.

Of the three pathways studied, Ca^{2+} signaling was the only pathway that differed significantly between PIPKI $\gamma\Delta E17$ and PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ mice, and therefore presents a plausible reason for why PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ mice die perinatally whereas PIPKI $\gamma\Delta E17$ have a normal life span. Given the importance of Ca^{2+} signaling in a wide range of cellular functions, it is not possible at this time to definitively establish a single cause for PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ lethality; conditional knockouts will give further insight. However, given the appearance of the mice at birth, and the fact that they survive for several hours, we propose two possibilities.

As previously noted, PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ mice have impaired motility and an absence of milk in their stomachs (Di Paolo et al., 2004). While we attribute their sluggish behavior to dehydration and a lack of nutrition, there may be a molecular cause. Intracellular Ca^{2+} signaling regulates a wide array of neuronal processes (Berridge, 1998). Of particular note is the role of Ca^{2+} in Purkinje neurons, where IP $_3$ -mediated Ca^{2+} release from the ER plays a role in long term depression, facilitating motor memory and coordination (Goto and Mikoshiba, 2011). Genetic ablation of other members of the intracellular Ca^{2+} release signaling pathway; glutamate receptor mGluR1 (Alba et al., 1994; Conquet et al., 1994), $G\alpha_q$ (Offermanns et al., 1997; Hartmann et al., 2004), PLC β_4 (Kim et al., 1997) and IP $_3$ receptor type 1 (Matsumoto et al., 1996) all result in ataxia and, in some cases, tremors and seizures. Although most mice had reduced viability, death often occurred after 3 weeks postnatally. Therefore, the early post-natal lethality of PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ mice must arise from additional defects.

The inability to feed could also arise from defects within the gastrointestinal system. Coordinated peristalsis of the gastrointestinal tract is controlled by Ca^{2+} signaling through pacemaker cells called interstitial cells of Cajal (ICC) (Takaki, 2003). Although mice lacking ICC are able to swallow and obtain nutrition (Ward et al., 1994), postnatal blockade of ICC function results in profound cessation of peristalsis (Maeda et al., 1992), suggesting developmental compensation in the mice lacking ICC. Since a role for ICC in peristalsis appears to begin around birth (Roberts et al., 2010), impaired pacemaker function of ICC is unlikely to be developmentally compensated in our mice. Therefore, combined dysfunctional Ca^{2+} signaling in ICC and esophageal smooth muscle may collaborate to abolish peristaltic waves necessary for swallowing.

We have generated and analyzed two mice carrying genetic mutations at the PIPKI γ locus. One mouse lacks all isoforms of PIPKI γ whereas the other mouse carries a specific deletion of the PIPKI γ_{i2} splice isoform. By introducing a third PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ mouse to the already published models (Di Paolo et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2007) we corroborate one of these models and confirm that PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ mice develop normally but die shortly after birth. By comparing our two models we confirm a neuron-specific endocytosis defect in PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ mice, but rule out that this defect is lethal. Rather, the intracellular Ca^{2+} response to metabotropic agents differs markedly between PIPKI $\gamma^{-/-}$ and PIPKI $\gamma\Delta E17$ mice, and may represent an essential function of

PIPK1 γ . The mice we have examined here harbour the genetic mutation in all tissues, but the fact that our strategy was designed to allow for ablation in specific tissues using Cre-lox technology will permit future analysis using restricted Cre expression lines to further isolate the essential role of PIPK1 γ .

Materials and Methods

Generation of knockout mice

Generation of PIPK1 γ Δ E17 mice was previously described (Legate et al., 2011). To generate PIPK1 γ ^{-/-} mice, a loxP site and Neo cassette flanked by flp sites was inserted into an ApaI site located between exon 17 and exon 18. A second loxP site was inserted at the PmlI site 2.3 kb into exon 18. A 7 kb 5' recombination arm spanning a ClaI site upstream of exon 17 and the ApaI site downstream of exon 17, and a 2.3 kb 3' recombination arm spanning PmlI and EcoRI sites downstream of exon 18, were used to recombine the targeting vector into the genome of 129 ES cells. Clones were screened by Southern blot by digesting with EcoRI and using a 476 bp probe spanning exon 7. Mouse genotyping was accomplished by PCR analysis of tail clips using 5'-TACTAACTGCTTCCCGTGGT-3' (forward) and 5'-GTTTCTGTGTCTTGTGCGTC-3' (reverse) to distinguish WT from Δ E17, and the WT allele of PIPK1 γ ^{+/+} mice, and 5'-TACTAACTGCTTCCCGTGGT-3' (forward) and 5'-AGTCATCTGCGAATTGGGATT-3' to detect the null allele. The Neo cassette was removed by mating mice with a strain expressing a deleter flipase, and all mice were backcrossed for seven generations with CL57Bl/6 before analysis. WT littermates were used as controls against Δ E17 and -/- mice. All animal studies were approved by the Regierung von Oberbayern.

RT-PCR

RNA was isolated from tissues of 4-week-old mice using Trizol (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's directions. 1 μ g of total RNA was reverse transcribed using a ProtoScript cDNA synthesis kit (NEB) using oligo d(T)₂₃ VN primers according to the manufacturer's directions. The single strand DNA was used as a template for a PCR reaction to detect the following transcripts: PIPK1 α : 5'-GCAGAGAATCCAGACACAATG-3' (forward), 5'-CTGATGGAGGATACG-ATCTC-3' (reverse); PIPK1 β : 5'-TACAGGTTTGTAAAGAAGTTGG-3' (forward), 5'-CTCTGCAACATCAAGCTTTTCC-3' (reverse); PIPK1 γ : 5'-CTTCAGATAC-ATCGGAGCAG-3' (forward), 5'-GCTGGGCTCCAGATTGGGG-3' (reverse); PIPK1 γ :2: 5'-CTTCAGATACATCGGAGCAG-3' (forward), 5'-CGCTCTCGCC-GTCCGAGG-3' (reverse); GAPDH: 5'-ACCACAGTCCATGCCATCAC-3' (forward), 5'-TCCACCACCTGTTGCTGA-3' (reverse).

Behavioral tests

The following behavioral tests were performed in sequential order: general neurological examination, grip strength, rotarod, open field, elevated-plus maze, light-dark avoidance, Morris water maze, shuttle box, and startle/prepulse inhibition as described previously (Montag-Sallaz et al., 2002; Montag-Sallaz and Montag, 2003; Beglopoulos et al., 2005).

Cell type isolation

Neurons were isolated from E14.5 embryos as described (Vincent et al., 1996). Briefly, cortices were dissected and mechanically dissociated with a flame polished pipette in Ham's F12 medium supplemented with 10% FBS and 0.6% glucose. Dissociated cells were plated at 3×10^6 cells/35 mm plastic cell culture dish coated with 10 μ g/ml poly-L-lysine. After 3 days, 5 μ M arabinofuranoside was added to the culture medium to prevent the proliferation of glial cells. Neurons were cultured for 10 days before experiments.

Fibroblasts were isolated as previously described (Legate et al., 2011), and keratinocytes were isolated as previously described (Czuchra et al., 2006).

Macrophages were isolated by negative magnetic selection. Spleens from 12-week old mice were rinsed in HBSS+0.2% BSA and separated into a single cell suspension by rubbing between two frosted glass slides and washed through a 70 μ m cell strainer. Red blood cells were removed by incubation for 3 minutes in ACK buffer (150 mM NH₄Cl, 10 mM KHCO₃, 0.1 mM EDTA), HBSS was added to fill the tube and cell suspensions were pelleted at 900 rpm for 10 minutes. Pellets were resuspended in 5 ml MACS buffer (PBS +2 mM EDTA +0.5% BSA) and incubated with biotinylated antibodies against CD90, B220, Gr-1, NK1.1 (PharMingen) and DX5 (BD Biosciences) for 10 minutes on ice. Cells were washed, incubated with 100 μ l streptavidin-MicroBeads (Miltenyi Biotec) for 15 minutes on ice, and applied to a MACS LS separation column (Miltenyi Biotec) in the presence of a magnetic field. The flow-through contained macrophages. Purity was controlled by staining with anti-F4/80-Alexa 647 and analyzed by FACS.

Glial cells were isolated from newborn cerebral cortices by gentle trituration with a pipette tip in Spinner MEM (SMEM). Cell suspensions were incubated with 2 mg/ml trypsin, 1 mM EDTA and 200 U/ml DNase (Sigma #D5025) in SMEM for 10 min at 37°C, and triturated again. Trypsin was killed by addition of an equal volume of DMEM +10% FBS and centrifuged. Pellets were resuspended in

DMEM +10% FBS +Pen/Strep and plated at 1 brain per 2×10 cm dishes. Plates were split three times before experiments, and cell identity was confirmed by immunostaining with anti-GFAP antibody.

Smooth muscle cells were isolated from bladders of newborn mice. Bladders were dissected, washed in HBSS and rubbed with forceps to dissociate epithelial cells. Tissue was macerated and incubated for 1 hour at 37°C in DMEM +2 mg/ml collagenase Type 2 (Worthington). Cell pellets were resuspended in DMEM +10% FBS +Pen/Strep and plated onto glass bottom 35 mm dishes coated with 10 μ g/ml fibronectin, 3 dishes per bladder. Cells were used for experiments the next day. Identity of the cell type was confirmed by immunostaining with anti-smooth muscle actin.

Endocytosis assays

Neurons from E14.5 embryos were cultured in neural-basal medium containing B27 supplement and 5% FBS for 10 days before the experiments. Neurons were surface-labeled with 0.13 mg/ml NHS-SS-biotin (Thermo Scientific) for 30 minutes at 4°C before incubation for 90 seconds in neural-basal medium containing 90 mM KCl. Endocytosis was induced by incubating the neurons in medium containing 4 mM KCl for 10 minutes at 37°C. The remaining surface label was stripped with sodium 2-mercaptoethanesulfonate (MesNa, Sigma) for 25 minutes at 4°C before cells were lysed in a low volume of lysis buffer (75 mM Tris, 200 mM NaCl, 7.5 mM EDTA and 7.5 mM EGTA, 1.5% Triton X-100, 0.75% Igepal CA-630, and protease inhibitors). Biotinylated synaptotagmin was determined by Capture-ELISA. For this, 50 μ l cell lysate was incubated overnight at 4°C in Maxisorb 96 well plates (Life Technologies) that were coated overnight with anti-synaptotagmin antibody (5 μ g/ml, Ab51172, Abcam) to capture synaptotagmin. Biotinylated synaptotagmin was detected after several washing steps by chromogenic reaction with ABTS peroxidase substrate (Vector Laboratories).

Alternately, neurons were loaded with 10 μ M FM 4-64 in endocytosis buffer (10 mM HEPES, 130 mM NaCl, 1 mM MgCl₂, 30 mM glucose, pH 7.4) containing 90 mM KCl and 2 mM CaCl₂ for 2 minutes, followed by an incubation with 10 μ M FM 4-64 in endocytosis buffer containing 4 mM KCl and 2 mM CaCl₂ for 10 minutes. To remove non-internalized dye, neurons were washed with 1 mM ADVASEP-7 (Biotrend) in endocytosis buffer containing 4 mM KCl and no CaCl₂ for 3 \times 3 minutes. Images were collected in an environmental chamber maintained at 37°C with a 20 \times 1.6 objective of a Zeiss Axiovert 200 M controlled by Metamorph software. Neurons were unloaded by 2 \times 2 minute incubations in endocytosis buffer containing 90 mM KCl and 2 mM CaCl₂, and imaged again for background subtraction. Background subtracted images were generated in ImageJ, regions of interest were drawn around fluorescent synaptic boutons and integrated fluorescence intensity was quantified.

1.5×10^5 fibroblasts were plated into 6 cm dishes the day before the assay. Cells were incubated with 5 μ g/ml transferrin-Alexa 488 (Invitrogen) in DMEM/0.1% BSA and incubated for 20 minutes at 37°C (control samples were kept on ice during the incubation). Cells were washed 3 \times with PBS and incubated for 5 minutes in 0.5 M HOAc/0.5 M NaCl, pH 4.1 to remove non-internalized transferrin. Cells were washed again with PBS, scraped into tubes and centrifuged, resuspended in PBS/2% FBS and fixed with 1.5% PFA for 10 minutes prior to FACS analysis. 50,000 cells were counted per plot.

Isolated macrophages were resuspended in 100 μ l MACS buffer containing 10 μ g/ml transferrin-Alexa 488 and incubated for 15 minutes at 37°C. An excess of ice cold 0.5 M HOAc/0.5 M NaCl, pH 4.1 was added to the tubes and incubated for 5 minutes to remove non-internalized transferrin. Cells were washed twice with MACS buffer, labeled with anti-F4/80-Alexa 647 and analyzed by FACS. F4/80-positive cells were gated to remove minor F4/80-negative contamination from the analysis.

Synapsome preparation

Crude synapsomes were prepared by differential centrifugation as described (Huttner et al., 1983) and further fractionated on a discontinuous Ficoll gradient (Nicholls, 1978).

Tissue iron determination

Colorimetric quantification of tissue iron stores was a combination of two previously described methods (van Elik et al., 1974; Kreeftenberg et al., 1984). Liver and spleen samples were dissected, rinsed in 150 mM NaCl, and weighed prior to drying at 110°C. 200 μ l of destruction fluid (perchloric acid:nitric acid 4:1 v/v) was added and samples were incubated for 3 hours at 60°C. Water was added to 3 ml, and 1 ml was withdrawn for analysis. 0.1 ml 0.1 M HCl, 0.1 ml 10 mM K₂S₂O₈ and 0.5 ml 5 M KCNS were added to obtain Fe-CNS complexes, which were extracted with two additions of methyl isobutyl ketone. Absorbance was read at 500 nm and compared to a standard FeCl₃ solution.

Histology and immunohistochemistry

Formalin fixed, paraffin-embedded spleens were sectioned into 5 μ m thick slices with a microtome. To visualize iron content, spleen sections were deparaffinized, rehydrated, and incubated with a mixture of equal proportions 20% aqueous HCl

and 10% aqueous solution potassium ferrocyanide [K₄Fe(CN)₆·3H₂O] for 20 minutes, rinsed with dH₂O and counterstained with H&E. To visualize adherens junctions in epithelia skin, esophagus, small intestine and kidney samples were frozen and sectioned into 5 μ m slices with a cryotome. Sections were fixed with 4% PFA, permeabilized with PBS/0.2% Triton X-100 for 10 minutes and incubated overnight with rat anti-E-cadherin (1:200; Zymed) and rabbit anti-laminin 332 (skin and esophagus; 1:1000; gift from Monique Aumailley) or rat anti- α 6 integrin-FITC (kidney; 1:100; PharMingen); the latter incubation was conducted after secondary labeling of the E-cadherin was complete. Secondary antibodies were anti-rat-Cy3 (1:800; Jackson) and anti-rabbit-Alexa647 (1:500; Invitrogen).

Barrier function assays

Inside-out barrier function was assayed using a surface biotinylation technique as described (Furuse et al., 2002). 50 μ l of a 10 mg/ml solution of EZ-Link Sulfo-NHS-LC-Biotin (Pierce) resuspended in PBS +1 mM CaCl₂ was injected into the back skin of WT or PIP2K γ ^{-/-} newborn mice and incubated for 30 minutes. Skin samples were frozen, sectioned at 5 μ m thickness, fixed in 95% ethanol for 30 minutes at 4°C and 100% acetone for 1 minute at room temp. Samples were blocked for 15 minutes and incubated with Streptavidin-Cy3 (source) for 30 minutes.

Outside-in barrier function was analyzed by a whole-mount permeability assay as previously described (Hardman et al., 1998). Embryos were incubated with 4 mM K₄Fe(CN)₆·3H₂O, 4 mM K₃Fe(CN)₆, 1 mg/ml 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl- β -D-galactopyranoside (X-Gal) in PBS, pH 4.5 at 30°C overnight, and photographed.

Calcium release assay

Cells plated on glass bottom 35 mm dishes were loaded with 4 μ M Fura-2, AM (Invitrogen) for 1 hour at room temp in loading buffer (110 mM HEPES-NaOH, 135 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl₂, 3 mM CaCl₂, 25 mM glucose, pH 7.4) and incubated a further 30 minutes in wash/assay buffer (loading buffer, CaCl₂) to allow the Fura-2 to de-esterify (SMCs were incubated during this step in load buffer since prolonged incubation in calcium-free buffer resulted in a lack of response to agonist). Cells were imaged on a Zeiss Axiovert 35 M microscope equipped with a CoolSnap charge-coupled device camera. Imaging and data collection was controlled by Metafluor version 4.6 software. For ratiometric imaging 320 and 360 excitation filters and a 500/20 emission filter were used. Immediately prior to imaging, the buffer bathing the SMCs was exchanged for calcium-free assay buffer. Baseline ratios were collected every 3 seconds (for glia and SMCs, every 0.5 seconds for fibroblasts) for 1 minute. Agonists used were 100 μ M ATP for fibroblasts and glia and 100 μ M carbamoylcholine chloride (Cch; Sigma) for SMCs. Following the addition of agonist, ratios were collected for an additional 4–9 minutes. Peak responses were calculated as the difference between the baseline values and maximal ratiometric change, and flux was measured by calculating the slope of the ratiometric change (Fura-2 ratio over time) during the linear portion of the cellular response.

Statistical analysis

Where stated, results are expressed as means \pm s.e.m. Unpaired Student's *t*-test was used to establish statistical significance. For behavioral experiments analysis of variance (ANOVA) with factors genotype and sex and post hoc analysis with Scheffe's was used.

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